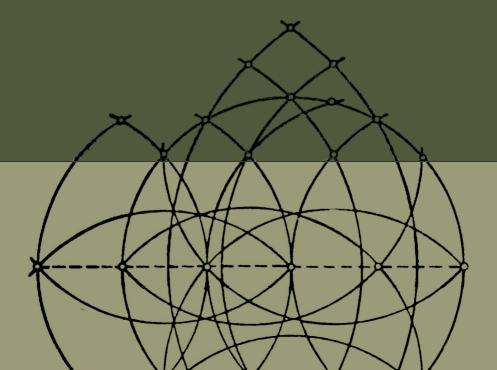
GEOMETRICAL CONSTRUCTIONS USING COMPASSES ONLY

A. N. Kostovskii



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Volume 4

GEOMETRICAL CONSTRUCTIONS USING COMPASSES ONLY

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GEOMETRICAL CONSTRUCTIONS USING COMPASSES ONLY

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FOREWORD

The author of the present article has on many occasions given lectures on the theory of geometrical constructions to participants in mathematical olympiads, which have been organized every year since 1947, for the pupils of secondary schools in the city of Lvov. These lectures served as a foundation for the writing of the first part of this work.

The second part consists of investigations made by the author in connexion with geometrical constructions carried out with a limited opening of the 'legs'.

The present article is written for a wide circle of readers. It should help teachers and pupils of senior classes of secondary schools to acquaint themselves in greater detail with geometrical constructions carried out with the help of compasses alone. This work can serve as a teaching aid in the work of school mathematical clubs. It can also be used by students studying elementary mathematics in physics and mathematics departments of teachers' training colleges and universities.

The author wishes to express his sincere thanks to A.S. Kovanko, W.F. Rogachenko and I.F. Teslenko who read the manuscript carefully and offered a great deal of valuable advice.

INTRODUCTION

Geometrical constructions form a substantial part of a mathematical education. They represent a powerful tool of geometrical investigations.

The tradition of limiting the tools of geometrical construction to a ruler and compasses goes back to remote antiquity.

The famous geometry of Euclid (3rd century B.C.) was based on geometrical constructions carried out by compasses and a ruler, the compasses and ruler being regarded as equivalent instruments; it was a matter of indifference how each separate construction was carried out - by means of the compasses and the ruler, or by means of the compasses alone or by means of the ruler alone.

It was noted a long time ago that compasses are a more exact, a more perfect instrument than a ruler. It was observed too that certain constructions could be carried out by means of compasses, without the use of a ruler; for example, to divide a circumference into six equal parts, to construct a point symmetrical to a given point with respect to a given straight line, and so on. Attention was drawn to the fact that in engraving thin metal plates, in marking the dividing circles on astronomical instruments as a rule only compasses are used. The latter, probably, gave the impetus to investigations on geometrical constructions carried out by compasses alone.

In the year 1797, the Italian mathematician Lorenzo Mascheroni, professor of the University of Pavia, published a large work 'The Geometry of Compasses', which was later translated into French and German. In that work the following proposition was proved:

All construction problems soluble by means of compasses and a ruler can also be solved exactly by means of compasses alone.

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This statement was proved in 1890 by A. Adler in an original way, using inversion. He also proposed a general method of solving geometrical construction problems by means of compasses alone. In 1928, the Danish mathematician Hjelmslev found in a bookshop in Copenhagen a book by G. Mohr ('The Danish Euclid') published in 1672 in Amsterdam. In the first part of this book there is a full solution of Mascheroni's problem. Thus, it had been shown a long time before Mascheroni that all geometrical constructions capable of being carried out with compasses and a ruler can be carried out by means of compasses alone.

The division of geometry in which geometrical constructions by means of compasses alone are studied is called 'The Geometry of the Compasses'. In 1833 the Swiss geometer Jacob Steiner published the work 'Geometrical Construction Carried out with the Aid of a Straight Line and a Fixed Circle', in which he investigated most fully constructions carried out with the ruler alone. The basic result of this work can be formulated as follows:

Every construction problem, soluble by means of compasses and a ruler, can be solved by means of a ruler alone, provided that in the plane of the drawing there is a given circle with fixed centre and radius.

Thus, in order to make the ruler equivalent to the compasses, it is sufficient to use the compasses once.

The great Russian mathematician N.I. Lobachevskii, in the first half of the 19th century, discovered a new geometry, which later became known as non-Euclidean geometry or Lobachevskian geometry. Recently, thanks to the efforts of a great number of scholars, especially Soviet ones, the theory of geometrical constructions in Lobachevskian geometry has been vigorously developed.

A.S. Smogorzhevskii, V.F. Rogachenko, K.K. Mokrishchev and other mathematicians have carried out investigations into constructions in the Lobachevskian plane without a ruler, showing the possibility of executing constructions similar to the constructions of Mascheroni in the Euclidean plane.

The great number of general investigations led to the formulation in the works of our scholars of quite a full and

INTRODUCTION

exact theory of geometrical constructions in the Lobachevskian plane, scarcely inferior in its completeness to the theory of geometrical constructions in the Euclidean plane.

Part 1

Constructions with compasses alone

1. ON THE POSSIBILITY OF SOLVING GEOMETRICAL CONSTRUCTION PROBLEMS BY MEANS OF COMPASSES ALONE: THE BASIC THEOREM

In this section the proof of the basic theorem of the Geometry of Compasses will be prescribed. To do so, it is necessary to examine the solutions of certain problems on construction with compasses alone.

It is clear that we cannot, with compasses alone, draw a continuous straight line given by two points on it, although we shall show later how, using compasses alone, we can construct one, two, and, generally, any number of points, situated as closely together as desired on a given straight line*.

Thus, the construction of a straight line is not fully covered by the Mohr-Mascheroni theory.

In the geometry of compasses, a straight line or a segment is defined by two points and is not given as a continuous straight line (drawn with a ruler). The construction of a straight line is regarded as completed as soon as any two points on it are constructed.

Let us agree to write the phrase 'With point A as centre and radius BC we describe a circle (or draw an arc)' in the short form: 'We describe the circle (A, BC)' or 'We draw the circle (A, BC)', or, shorter still, 'We describe (A, BC)'. Instead of the notation (A, AB) we shall write (A, B).

For the sake of clarity, we shall still mark (in dots) straight lines in the diagrams. (These straight lines play no part in the constructions).

Problem 1. To construct a point, symmetrical to a given point with respect to the given straight line .!B.

^{*}From the practical point of view, there is no ground to regard a straight line as constructed, if some of its points are constructed.

4

 ${\bf C}$ on struction. We describe the circles(A, C)and (B, C), i.e. using the points A and B as centres, we draw circles passing through the point C (Fig. 1). At the intersection of these circles we obtain point C, is the required one.

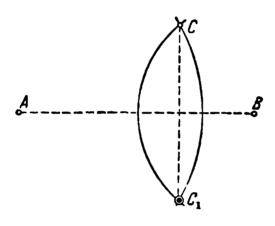


Fig. 1

Note. To verify that three points A, B and X lie on one straight line, it is necessary to construct any point C outside the straight line and then the point C_1 , symmetrical to C_2 . Obviously, the point X lies on the straight line AB if the segments CX and C_1X are equal to each other (Fig. 1).

Problem 2. To construct a segment, 2, 3, 4, ... and, in general, n times greater than a given segment AA, =r (where n is any natural number).

Construction. (Method 1). Keeping the opening of the compasses constant and equal to r we describe

the circle (A_1, r) and we construct the point A_1 , diametrically opposite to the point A_1 , for which purpose we mark off the chords $AB = BC = CA_1 = r$ (Fig. 2). The segment $AA_1 = 2r$. We then describe the circle (A_1, r) which intersects the circle (C, r) at the point D. At the point of intersection of the circles (D, r) and (A_1, r) we obtain the point A_1 . The segment $AA_1 = 3r$, and so on. Having carried out the indicated constructions n times we construct the segment $AA_n = nr$. The validity of the construction follows from the fact that compasses with an opening equal to the radius of a circle divide its circumference into 6 equal parts.

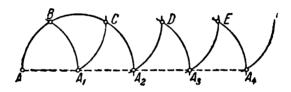


Fig. 2

Construction. (Method 2). We take any point B outside AA, and we draw the circles (A, AB) and (B, r), which meet at the point C (Fig. 3).

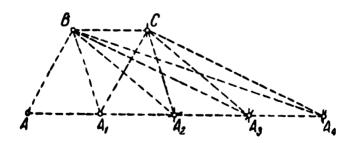


Fig. 3

If the circles (A_1, r) and (C, BA_1) are drawn they will intersect in the point A_1 . The segment $AA_1 = 2r$. Des-

cribing the circles (A_a, r) and (C, BA_b) we obtain the point A_a . The segment $AA_a = 3r$, and so on.

The validity of this construction follows immediately from the fact that the figures ABCA, A,BCA, A,BCA, ... are parallelograms.

<u>Problem 3.</u> Construct the fourth proportional to three given segments, a, b and c..

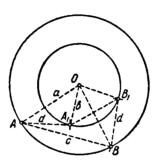


Fig. 4

C on struction in the case, when c < 2a: With any point O in the plane as the centre, we describe two concentric circles of radii a and b (Fig. 4). On the circle (O, a) we mark off the chord AB = c, then, with an arbitrary radius d we describe two circles, (A, d) and (B, d), which intersect the circle (O, b) at the points A_1 and B_1 . The segment A_1B_1 is the required fourth proportional to the three given segments.

P r o o f. The triangles AOA_1 and BOB_1 are equal, having all corresponding sides equal, therefore $\not \subset AOA_1 = \not \subset BOB_1$. Hence $\not \subset AOB = \not \subset AOB_1$ and the isosceles triangles AOB and A_1OB_1 are similar. It follows that

$$a:b=c:A,B,.$$

Construction in the case of $c \ge 2a$. In the case of b < 2a, we construct the fourth proportional of the segments a, c and b. Otherwise, we

construct the segment na (Problem 2), taking n such that c < 2na (or b < 2na)*.

We construct a segment y, the fourth proportional to the segments na, b and c. If, now, we construct a segment x=ny (Problem 2) then we obtain a segment, which is a fourth proportional to the three given segments a, b and c.

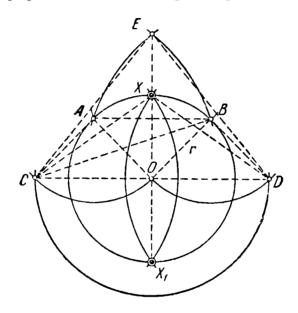


Fig. 5

Indeed

na:b=c:v

or

a:b=c:ny.

^{*}We find a segment 2na > c in the following way. We construct the segment $a_1 = 2a$ (Problem 2). From an arbitrary point O_{13} in the plane, we describe a circle (O_1, c) and we measure off in an arbitrary direction segments $O_1A_1 = a_1, O_1A_2 = 2a_1, O_1A_3 = 3a_1$, etc. (Problem 2). After a finite number of steps we arrive at the point a_1 which will lie outside of the circle a_1 obviously, the segment $a_1 = 2na_1 = 2na_2 > c$.

Problem 4. To divide the arc AB of a circle in half.

C on struction. We can assume that the centre O of the circle is known; it will be shown below (Problem 13) how to construct the centre of a circle (or arc) using compasses alone.

Putting OA = OB = r and AB = a, we describe circles (O, a), (A, r) and (B, r); at the intersection we obtain the points C and D (Fig. 5).

We draw the circles (C, B) and (D, A) up to their intersection at the point E. If, now, the circles (C, OE) and (D, OE) be drawn, then, at their intersection, we obtain points X and X_1 . The point X divides in half the arc AB, the point X_1 divides the arc that completes, with the first one, the full circle. In the case when the whole circle (O, A) is drawn, we need draw only one of the two circles (C, OE) and (D, OE), which, at its intersection with the circle (O, A)', will define points X and X_1 .

Proof. The figures ABOC and ABOO are parallelograms; therefore, the points C, O and D lie on the same straight line $(CO \parallel AB, OD \parallel AB)$. It follows from the isosceles triangles CED and CXD that $\not \subset COE = \not \subset COX = 90^{\circ}$. Thus the segment OX is perpendicular to the chord AB. Consequently, in order to prove that the point X divides the arc AB in half, it is sufficient to show that the segment

$$QX = r$$
.

It follows from the parallelogram ABOC that

$$OA^{2} + BC^{1} = 2OB^{1} + 2AB^{1}$$

or

$$r^2 + BC^1 = 2r^2 + 2a^2$$
,

so that

$$BC^{1} = 2a^{1} + r^{1}$$

From the right-angled triangle COE we have

$$CE^2 = BC^2 = OC^1 + OE^1$$
.

whence

$$2a^2 + r^2 = a^2 + OE^2$$

and

$$OE^1 = a^1 + r^1$$

Finally, from the right-angled triangle COX we obtain

$$OX = \sqrt{CX^{1} - OC^{1}} = \sqrt{OE^{1} - OC^{1}} = \sqrt{a^{1} + r^{1} - a^{1}} = r.$$

As we have already pointed out, in the geometry of the compasses a straight line is regarded as constructed as soon as any two of its points are defined. In our further discussions (Problems 24, 25 and others) we shall have to construct, with compasses alone, one, two and, in general, any number of points of the given straight line. This construction can be carried out as follows:

Problem 5. On a straight line, defined by two points A and B. construct one or several points.

Construction. We take an arbitrary point C (Fig. 6) in the plane, outside the straight line AB. We

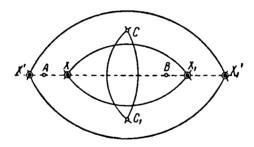


Fig. 6

construct a point, C_1 , symmetrical to C with respect to AB (Problem 1). With an arbitrary radius r, we describe the circles (C,r) and (C_1,r) . At their intersection we obtain the required points X and X_1 , which lie on the straight line AB. Varying the size of the radius r, it is possible to construct any number of points of the given straight line: X'_1, X'_1 , etc.

Problem 6. Construct the points of intersection of the

given circle (O, r) and the straight line given by two points A and B .

C on struct i on in the case, when the centre O does not lie on the given straight line AB (Fig. 7)*. We construct the point O_1 , symmetrical to the centre O of the given circle, with respect to the straight line AB (Problem 1). We describe the circle (O_1, r) which intersects with the given circle at the required points X and Y.

The truth of the construction is obvious from the symmetry of the figure with respect to the given straight line AB.

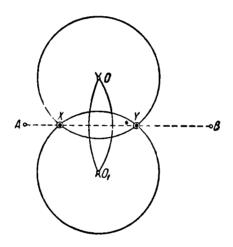


Fig. 7

C on struction in the case when the centre O of the given circle lies on the straight line AB (Fig. 8).

With A as the centre and an arbitrary radius d, we describe a circle, which intersects the given circle at the points C and D. We halve the arcs CD of the circle (O, r) (Problem 4).

^{*}With the help of compasses alone it is easy to check whether three given points lie on one straight line or not (see note to Problem 1).

The points X and Y are the required ones.

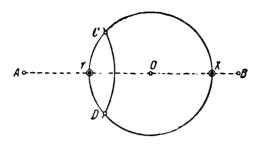


Fig. 8

 ${\tt N}\ {\tt o}\ {\tt t}\ {\tt e}_{\:\raisebox{1pt}{\text{\circle*{1.5}}}}$ From the construction discussed above it follows that

$$AX = AO + OX$$
 and $AY = AO - OX$

Problem 7. To construct the point of intersection of two straight lines AB and CD, each of which is given by two points.

C on struction. We construct points C_i and D_i , symmetrical to C and D respectively, with respect to the given straight line AB (Fig. 9). We describe circles (D_i, CC_i)

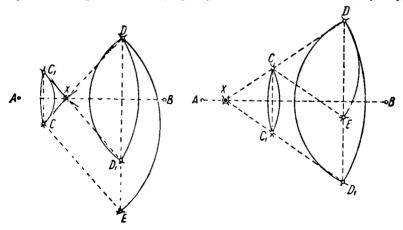


Fig. 9

and (C, D) and we denote the point of their intersection by E. We construct the segment x, fourth proportional to the segments DE, DD, and CD (Problem 3). Now, if the circles (D, x) and (D_1, x) are drawn, we then obtain the required point X at their intersection.

Proof. As the point C_1 is symmetrical to the point C, and the point D_1 is symmetrical to the point D, then, obviously, we shall find the point of intersection of the given straight lines if we construct the point of intersection of the straight lines CD and C_1D_2 .

The figure CC_1D_1E is a parallelogram, consequently, the points D_1D_1 and E lie on the same straight line $(DE||CC_1, DD_1||CC_1)$. The triangles CDE and XDD_1 are similar, therefore

$$DE:DD_1 = CE:D_1X$$

but

$$CE = CD = C.D.$$

The segment $D_1X = x$ is the fourth proportional of the segments DE, DD, and CD.

Each constructional problem with compasses and a ruler in the Euclidean plane is always reducible to the solution in a definite order of the following very simple basic problems:

- 1. To draw a straight line through two given points.
- To describe a circle of a given radius from a given centre.
- 3. To find the points of intersection of two given circles.
- 4. To find the points of intersection of a given circle with a straight line given by two points.
- 5. To find the point of intersection of two straight lines, each of which is given by two points.

In order to prove that any construction problem which can be solved with a ruler and compasses can also be solved by means of compasses alone, it is sufficient to show that all these basic operations can be carried out by means of compasses alone.

The second and third operations are carried out directly

by compasses. The remaining basic operations were carried out in Problems 5-7.

Suppose that a certain construction problem, soluble by means of compasses and a ruler, has to be solved by means of compasses alone. Let us imagine this problem solved by means of a ruler and compasses. As a result, the solution is reduced to carrying out a certain finite sequence of the five basic operations. Having carried out each of these operations with compasses alone (Problems 5-7) we arrive at the solution of the original problem.

Thus all construction problems, soluble by means of compasses and a ruler, can be solved exactly by means of compasses alone.

The method of solving geometrical construction problems by means of compasses alone leads, as a rule, to quite complicated and lengthy constructions, but it has great interest from the theoretical point of view.

2. SOLUTION OF GEOMETRICAL CONSTRUCTION PROBLEMS BY MEANS OF COMPASSES ALONE

In this section we shall discuss the solution of certain interesting problems in the geometry of compasses, arrived at mainly by the efforts of Mohr, Mascheroni and Adler. The solutions of some of these problems will be used in the second part.

Problem 8. To draw a perpendicular to the segment AB at the point A.

C on struction. (First Method). Keeping the opening of the compasses constant and equal to an arbitrary segment r, we draw the circles (A, r) and (B, r) until they meet at the point O. We describe the circle (O, r) and we construct the point E on it, which is diametrically opposite to the point B. For this we draw the chords CD = DE = r (Fig. 10), where C is the point of intersection of the circles (B, r) and (O, r). The segment AE is perpendicular to AB. If we put r = AB, then $AE = \sqrt{3} AB$, and the point C coincides with the point A.

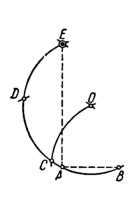


Fig. 10

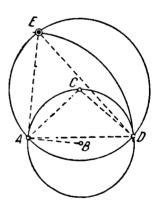


Fig. 11

Construction. (Second Method). We describe the circumference (B, A) (Fig. 11), we take an arbitrary point C on it and we draw the circle (C, A). Let D be the point at which these circles intersect. If now a third circle (A, D) is drawn to its intersection with the circle (C, A) at the point E, then the segment AE is perpendicular to AB.

Proof. The segment AC joins the centres of the circles (A, D) and (C, A). DE is their common chord; this means that AC is perpendicular to DE and $\angle CAD = \angle CAE$ (the triangle ADE is equilateral).

On the other hand $\not\subset CAD = \not\subset ADC = \stackrel{\sim}{\simeq} \frac{AC}{2}$. It follows from the last equations that

$$\stackrel{\checkmark}{\swarrow} CAE = \frac{\smile AC}{2}.$$

The straight line AE is the tangent to the circle (B, A) at the point A, so that AE is perpendicular to AB.

<u>Problem 9. To construct a segment, equal to $\frac{1}{n}$ of a given segment AB (to divide the segment AB into n equal parts, n=2,3,...).</u>

C on struction. (First Method). We construct the segment AC = nAB (Problem 2). We describe the circle (C, A). At the intersection with the circle (A, B) we obtain the points D and D_1 . The circles (D, A) and (D_1, A) define the point X such that the segment $AX = \frac{AB}{n}$ (Fig. 12).

Increasing the segment $AX \ 2, \ 3$, and so on, n times (Problem 2), we construct the points which divide the segment AB into n equal parts.

Proof. From the similarity of the isosceles triangles ACD and AXD (the angle A is a common one) it follows that

$$AC:AD = AD:AX$$

or

$$AD^2 = AB^1 = AC \cdot AX = nAB \cdot AX$$

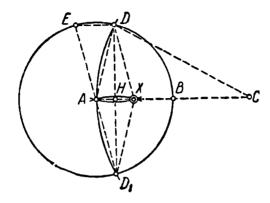


Fig. 12

Hence

$$AX = \frac{1}{n}AB$$
.

The point X lies on the straight line AB.

Note. For large values of n, the point X is poorly defined; the arcs of the circles (D, A) and (D, A) intersect at X at a very small angle*. In this case, to define the point X, instead of the circle (D, A), we can draw the circle (A, ED), where E is the point diametrically opposite to the point D, of the circle (A, B).

C on s t r u c t i on. (Second Method). We construct the segment AC = nAB (Problem 2). We then describe the circles (A, C), (C, A) and (C, AB) which intersect at the points D and E. If we now describe the circles (D, A) and (C, DE) then at their intersection we obtain the point X. The segment $AX = \frac{1}{n}AB$ (Fig. 13).

 \underline{P} roof. The point X lies on the straight line AC, since AC is parallel to DE and XC is parallel to DE (the

^{*}For the definition of the angle of intersection of two curves, see Section 8, p. 71 below.

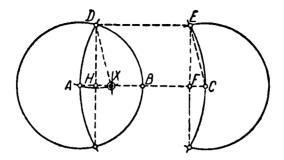


Fig. 13

figure CEDX is a parallelogram). From the similarity of the isosceles triangles ACD and AXD we get

$$AX = \frac{1}{n} AB$$
.

We now give the construction put forward by Smogorzhevskii*. This construction differs from the preceding ones in that the required $\frac{1}{n}$ th part of the segment AB does not lie on the given segment.

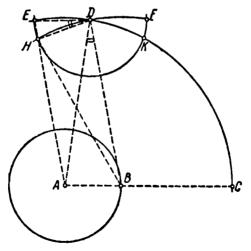


Fig. 14

^{*}See bibliography, page 79.

Construct AC = nAB (Problem 2). We draw the circles (A, C) and (B, AC) until they meet at the point D.

The circle (D, AB) will intersect the two latter ones at the points E and H. The segment $EH = \frac{1}{n}AB$ (Fig. 14).

Proof. From the congruence of triangles ABD, ADE and BDH (the three sides being equal), it follows that \angle ADB = \angle EDH. The isosceles triangles ADB and EDH are similar, consequently:

$$EH:ED = AB:AD$$

or

$$EH: AB = AB: nAB.$$

Finally

$$EH = \frac{1}{n}AB$$
.

We shall note that

$$EK = \frac{\sqrt{n^2 - 1}}{n} AB,$$

$$HK = \left(2 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right) AB.$$

<u>Problem 10.</u> To construct a segment equal to $\frac{1}{2^n}$ of a given segment AB (divide the segment AB into 2^n equal parts; n=2, 3...).

C on struct i on. (First Method). We construct the segment AC=2 AB (Problem 2). We draw the circle (C,A) and we denote by D_1 and D_1' the points of its intersection with the circle (A,B). If now we draw the circles (D_1,A) and (D_1',A) then at their intersection we obtain the point X_1 . The segment $BX_1 = AX_1 = \frac{1}{2}AB$. We then describe the circle (A,BD_1) , and at the intersection with (C,A) we obtain the point D_1 and D_2' . We draw the circles (D_1,A) and (D_1',A) until they meet at the point X_1 . The segment $BX_1 = \frac{1}{2^n}AB$.

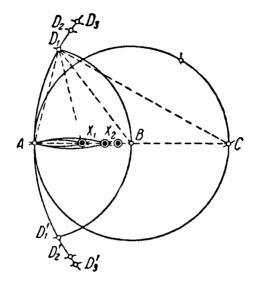


Fig. 15

If we further describe the circles (A,BD_1) , (D_1,A) and (D_1',A) , then we get the point X_1 . The segment $BX_1=\frac{1}{2^1}AB$ and so on.

Proof. From the similarity of the isosceles triangles ACD_1 and AD_1X_1 it follows that

$$AD_1:AC = AX_1:AD_1$$

or

$$AB: 2 AB = AX_1: AB$$
.

Hence

$$AX_1 = \frac{1}{2}AB$$
.

We introduce the notation AB = a, $AD_k = m_k$, k = 1, 2, 3, ..., n.

The segment BD_i is the median of the triangle ACD_i , consequently

$$4BD_1^1 = 2AD_1^2 + 2CD_1^1 - AC_1^2$$

or, in another way,

$$4 m_1^0 = 2 AB^0 + 2 AC^1 - AC^1 = 2 AB^1 + AC^1 = 2 AB^1 + 4AB^1$$

This means that

$$m_1^3 = AD_1^4 = \frac{1+2}{2}a^4 = \frac{3}{2}a^4$$
.

From the similarity of the isosceles triangles ACD_{\bullet} and $AD_{\bullet}X_{\bullet}$ we get

$$AD_{\bullet}:AC = AX_{\bullet}:AD_{\bullet}$$

and taking into account that $AD_{\bullet} = BD_{1} = m_{1}$ and AC = 2a , we have

$$AX_1 = \frac{3}{4}a$$
 or $BX_2 = \frac{1}{4}a = \frac{1}{2!}AB$.

Similarly we find

$$m_1^2 = \frac{1+2+2^3}{2^2} a^2$$
 and $BX_1 = \frac{1}{2^3} AB$,

and so on. In general

$$m_{k-1}^{a} = \frac{1+2+2^{a}+...+2^{k-1}}{2^{k-1}} a^{a}$$
 and $BX_{k} = \frac{1}{2^{k}} AB$.

To divide the segment AB into 2^n equal parts it is necessary to multiply the segment $AX_{n1}2,3,\ldots,2^n$ times (Problem 2).

C on struction. (Second Method). We construct the segment AC = 2AB (Problem 2), for which we draw the circle (B, A) and we mark on it the chords AE = EH = HC = a, we describe the circles (A, C) and (C, E) until their intersection at the points D, and D'.

The required point X_i is to be found at the intersection of the circles (D_i, C) and (D_i', C) . The segment $BX_i = \frac{1}{2}AB$.

We describe the circle (C, BD_1) , intersecting (A, C) at the points D_1 and D_2' and then the circles (D_2, BD_1) and (D_2', BD_1) . The latter ones, when intersecting, define the required point X_1 . The segment $BX_2 = \frac{1}{2^2} AB$ (Fig. 16). Similarly, describing the circles (C, BD_2) , (D_1, BD_2) and (D_2', BD_2) we construct the point X_2 . The segment $BX_2 = \frac{1}{12}AB$ and so on.

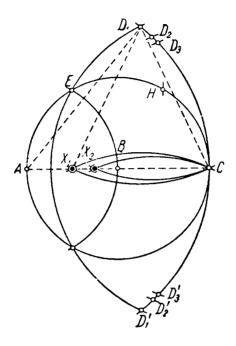


Fig. 16

P r o o f. From the similarity of the isosceles triangles ACD_1 and CD_1X_1 we get

$$CX_1:CD_1=CD_1:AC.$$

Taking into account that $CD_1 = CE = \sqrt{3}AB$ we find: $CX_1 = \frac{3}{2}AB$, which means that $BX_1 = \frac{1}{2}AB$. Let us denote $BD_k = m_k$, where k = 1, 2, ..., n. The segment BD_1 is the median of the triangle ACD_1 , consequently

$$4BD_1^2 = 4m_1^2 = 2AD_1^2 + 2CD_1^2 - AC^2 = 2AC^4 + 2CE^2 - AC^2 = 4a^2 + 2 \cdot 3a^2$$

or

$$m_i^2 = \left(1 + \frac{3}{2}\right)a^2.$$

From the similarity of the triangles ACD_{\bullet} and $CD_{\bullet}X_{\bullet}$ we have

$$CX_{\bullet}:CD_{\bullet}=CD_{\bullet}:AC.$$

Noting that $CD_a = BD_1 = m_1$ and AC = 2AB = 2a we get

$$CX_2 = \frac{CD_2^2}{AC} = \frac{m_1^2}{2a} = \frac{5}{2^4}a$$
.

It follows that

$$BX_a = \frac{1}{2^a} AB$$
.

In a completely similar way we shall prove that

$$m_a^2 = BD_a^2 = \frac{9}{4} a^a$$
, $CX_a = \frac{9}{8} a$ and $BX_3 = \frac{1}{2^3} AB$,

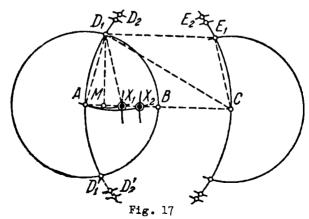
etc.

In general

$$m_{k-1}^{s} = BD_{k-1}^{s} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^{k}} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} + \frac{3}{2^{k-1}}\right)a^{s}$$

and $BX_{k} = \frac{1}{2^{k}}AB$.

If, in the first method of construction, for large values of k ($k \le n$) the point X_k is not clearly defined (the arcs of the circles which define this point almost coincide with one another) then it is possible to solve the problem as follows:



Construct the segment AC=2AB (Problem 2). We describe the circles (A, C), (C, A) and (C, AB). At their intersection we get the point D_1 and E_1 (Fig. 17). At the intersection of the circles (D_1, A) and (C, D_1E_1) we obtain the required point X_1 . The segment $BX_1=\frac{1}{2}AB$ (Fig. 17). Furthermore, we construct $AD_1=CE_2=BD_1$, towards which we describe the circles (A, BD_1) and (C, BD_1) . We draw the circles (D_1, A) and (C, D_1E_1) until they meet at the point X_1 . The segment $BX_1=\frac{1}{2^1}AB$, and so on.

Proof. The point X_1 lies on the straight line AC, since AC is parallel to D_1E_1 (the figure AD_1E_1C is a trapezium) and X_1C is parallel to D_1E_1 (the figure $X_1D_1E_1C$ is a parallelogram), this means X_1C is parallel to AC. Similarly, it can be established that the points X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n lie on the straight line AC.

From the preceding arguments it follows that $D_iX_i = D_i'X_i$, $D_iX_i = D_i'X_i$, ... • This means as was proved in the first method of construction that $BX_1 = \frac{1}{2}AB$, $BX_2 = \frac{1}{2^2}AB$, $BX_3 = \frac{1}{2^3}AB$, ... •

<u>Problem 11. To construct a segment, 3" times as great as</u> the given segment AA_n (n=2, 3, ...).

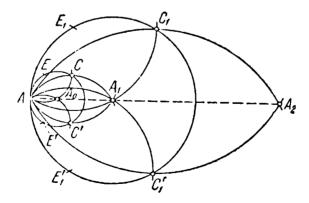


Fig. 18

C on struction. We describe the circle (A_0, A) and, without changing the opening of the compasses, we measure off the chords AE = EC, AE' = E'C'. We draw the circles (C, A) and (C', A) until they intersect at the point A_1 . The segment $AA_1 = 3AA_2$ (Fig. 18).

We then draw the circles (A_i, A) and we measure off the chords $AE_i = E_i C_i$, $AE_i' = E_i' C_i$. At the intersection of the circles (C_i, A) and (C_i', A) we obtain the point A_i . The segment $AA_i = 3^i AA_0$ and so on. The validity of the construction is self-evident.

<u>Problem 12.</u> To divide the segment AB into three equal parts. Let us examine an elegant method of construction put forward by Mascheroni.

C on struction. We construct AC = AB = BD (Problem 2). We describe the circles (C, B), (C, D), (D, A) and (D, C), at whose intersections we obtain the points E, E_1 , F and F,. The circles (E, C) and (E_1, C) , (F, D) and (F_1, D) define the required points X and Y, which divide the segment AB into three equal parts (Fig. 19).

Proof. It follows from the similarity of the isosceles triangles CEX and CDE that

CX:CE = CE:DC.

Taking into account that CF=24B and CD=3AB, we obtain $CX=\frac{1}{3}AB$, therefore $AX=\frac{1}{3}AB$.

Problem 13. Construct the centre of a given circle.

C on struction. On the circumference of the given circle we take a point A, and with an arbitrary radius d we describe the circle (A, d). At the intersection (with the original circle) we obtain the points B and D. On the circumference of (A, d) we construct the point C diametrically opposite to B. We further draw the circles (C, D) and (A, CD); we denote by E their point of intersection. Finally, we describe the circle (E, CD) to meet (A, d) at the point M. The point BM equals the radius of the given circle. The circles (B, M) and (A, BM) define the required centre of the given circle (Fig. 20).

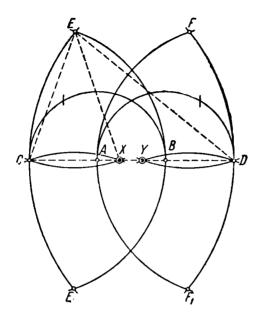


Fig. 19

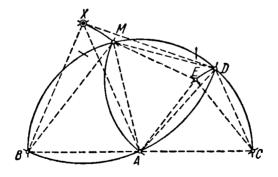


Fig. 20

Proof. The isosceles triangles ACE and AEM are equal, therefore $\not \propto EAM = \not \sim ACE$.

On the one hand, $\not\preceq BAE = \not\preceq ACE + \not\preceq AEC (\not\preceq BAE \text{ is an exterior}$ angle of the triangle ACE) on the other hand, $\not\preceq BAE = \not\supset BAM + \not\preceq EAM$.

Hence

$$\not\preceq BAM = \not\preceq AEC$$

Thus, the isosceles triangles ABM and ACL are similar, therefore

$$BM:AB = AC:CE$$

or

$$BX:AB = AC \cdot CD$$

From the latter proportion it follows that the isosceles triangles ABX and ACD are similar, which means that

$$\not\preceq BAX = \not\preceq ACD = \frac{1}{2} \not\preceq BAD = \not\preceq DAX;$$

the latter two equations follow from

$$\not\preceq BAD = \not\preceq ADC + \not\preceq ACD = 2 \not\preceq ACD = 2 \not\preceq BAX.$$

On the basis of the equality of the angles BAX and DAX we conclude that the isosceles triangles ABX and ADX are equal, therefore

$$BX = AX = DX$$
.

The point X is the required centre of the circle.

N o t e. We should make the segment d = AB greater than half the radius of the given circle, otherwise the circles (C, D) and (A, CD) will not intersect.

To conclude this chapter we give without proof the solution of the following problem of Mascheroni [10].

Problem 14. Construct the segment $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{n} AB$, where AB=1, $n=1,\ldots,25$.

C on struction. We describe the circle (A, B) and, with radius AB, which, for the sake of simplicity of notation, is taken to be a unit segment, we measure off the chords

BC = CD = DE. We draw the circles (B, D) and (E, C) until they meet at the points F and F,. We describe the circles (B, AF) and (E, AF) which intersect (A, B) at the points H and H,, and the circles (B, D) and (E, C) at the points N, N, M and M,. We describe the circles (E, A) and (B, A) and we mark the points P, P, P, P, and P, and P, and P, and P, and they will intersect the circles P, P, and they will intersect the circles P, P, and P, a

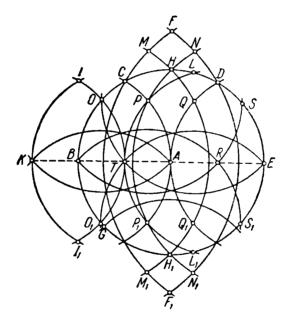


Fig. 21

the circles (R, AB) and (F_1, AB) until they meet the circle (A, B) at the points L, L_1 and G. The circles (O, A) and (O_1, A) intersect and so define the point K. Finally, we draw the circles (K, AB) and (T, AB) which, intersecting, give the points I and I_1 . Then

$$AT = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{1}, \ QQ_1 = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{7}, \ HK = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{13}, \ KD = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{19},$$

$$PT = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}, \ AF = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{8}, \ BS = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{14}, \ FO = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{20},$$

$$DR = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3}, \ BR = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{9}, \ LL_1 = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{15}, \ I_1D = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{21},$$

$$AB = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{4}, \ BL = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{10}, \ BE = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{16}, \ KS = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{22},$$

$$HT = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{5}, \ PS_1 = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{11}, \ FK = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{17}, \ MM_1 = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{23},$$

$$AM = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{6}, \ BD = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{12}, \ KN = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{18}, \ MN_1 = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{24},$$

$$KE = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{25} = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{25} \ AB.$$

3. INVERSION AND ITS PRINCIPAL PROPERTIES

At the end of the 19th century, Adler applied the principle of inversion to the theory of geometrical constructions with compasses alone. With the help of this principle he established a general method of solving construction problems in the geometry of compasses.

In this section we shall give the definition of inversion and we shall dwell briefly on its principal properties, which will be made use of in our further discussions.

In the plane of the drawing, let a circle (O, r) be given, also a point P other than O .

On the ray OP, take a point P' in such a way that the product of the segments OP and OP' are equal to the square of the radius of the given circle, i.e.

$$OP \cdot OP' = r^*; \tag{1}$$

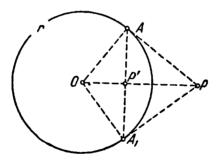


Fig. 22

Such a point P is called the inverse of the point P with respect to the circle $(O,\ r)$. The circle $(O,\ r)$ is called the circle of inversion, its centre is called the centre of in-

version or the pole of inversion and the quantity r^2 is called the power of inversion.

If the point P' is inverse of the point P, then, obviously, the point P is inverse of the point P'.

The correspondence between inverse points, or, in other words, the transformation, which associates with each point P of some figure the corresponding inverse point P', is called inversion*. From the definition of inversion it follows that to each point P in the plane there corresponds a definite and unique point P' in the same plane, and if OP > r, OP' < r. The exception is the centre O of the circle of inversion. No point in the plane can be inverse of O, which follows immediately from equation (1)**.

Let AP and A,P be tangents to the circle of inversion (O, r) drawn from the point P outside of this circle (Fig. 22). Then the point of intersection P' of the straight lines AA, and OP is the inverse of the point P. Indeed, in the right-angled triangle OAP (AP' is the height)

$$OP \cdot OP' = OA^{\bullet} = r^{\bullet}$$
.

If the point P moves along some curve l then its inverse point P' will also describe some curve l'. The curves l and l' are called mutually inverse.

Lemma. If the points P' and Q' are the inverse points of the points P and Q with respect to the circle (Q, P), then

^{*}Let us put OA = r = 1, OP = R, OP' = R', equation (1) in this case can be written as $R = \frac{1}{R'}$. The distances of the inverse points P and P' from the centre of inversion O are reciprocal numbers. Inversion (Latin <u>inversio</u>) literally means turning over, changing places.

**In Higher Geometry certain considerations lead to regard 'an infinitely distant' point in the plane as corresponding

^{&#}x27;an infinitely distant' point in the plane as corresponding to the centre O. When the point P approaches the centre of inversion O, the segment OP decreases. Then, in order that equation (1) should remain valid, the segment OP must increase and P will move further and further away from the centre of inversion O, i.e. if $OP \to 0$ then $OP \to \infty$.

 $\not\subset OP'Q' = \not\subset OQP, \not\subset OQ'P' = \not\subset OPQ.$

Proof. From the equations $OP \cdot OP' = OQ \cdot OQ' = r^1$ or $\frac{OP}{OQ} = \frac{OQ'}{OP'}$ it follows that the triangles OQ'P' and OQP are similar (Fig. 23). This proves the lemma. From the definition of

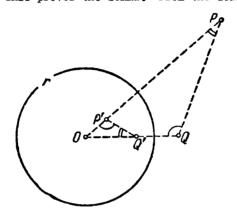


Fig. 23

inversion three theorems follow immediately:

Theorem 1. If two curves intersect at the point P, then their inverse curves intersect at a point P' which is the inverse of the point P.

Theorem 2. A straight line passing through the centre of inversion O is its own inverse.

The orem 3. The curve which is inverse to a given straight line AB, not passing through the centre of inversion, is the circle (O_1, OO_1) , which passes through the centre of inversion O_2 , and OO_2 is perpendicular to AB.

Proof. Let Q be the foot of the perpendicular drawn from the centre of inversion O to the given straight line. Let us denote the point inverse of the point Q by Q'. Let us take an arbitrary point P on the given straight line and let us denote its inverse point by P' (Fig. 24).

On the basis of the lemma we can write

$$\stackrel{>}{<} OP'Q' = \stackrel{>}{<} OQP = 90^{\circ}.$$

Consequently, when the point P moves along the straight line AB; its inverse P' describes a circle with the segment OQ' as its diameter.

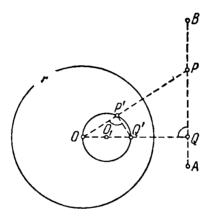


Fig. 24

As the circle (O_i, OO_i) and the given straight line AB are mutually inverse, then the converse proposition also holds.

The orem 4. The inverse of the given circle (O,R), not passing through the centre of inversion, is also a circle. Further, the centre of inversion is the centre of similitude of these circles.

Proof. Let the line OO_1 joining the centres of the circle of inversion (O, r) and the given circle (O_1, R) intersect the latter at the points A and B. Let us denote by A' and B' inverse points of the points A and B. Let us take an arbitrary point P on the circle (O_1, R) and let us denote its inverse by P' (Fig. 25). Applying the lemma, we obtain:

$$\not\subset OA'P' = \not\subset OPA$$
 and $\not\subset OB'P = \not\subset OPB$,

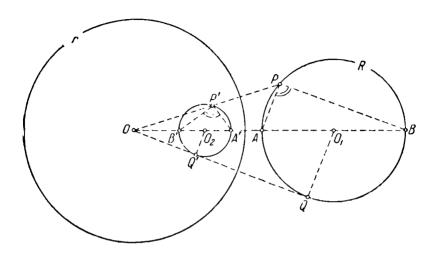


Fig. 25

Hence

In the triangles A'B'P' and ABP

$$\not\preceq A'P'B' = \not\preceq OB'P' - \not\supset OA'P' \text{ and } \not\preceq APB =$$

= $\not\preceq OPB - \not\preceq OPA = 90^{\circ}$.

Taking into account the preceding equation we get

$$\not \subseteq A'P'B' = \not \subseteq APB = 90^\circ$$
.

Now, let the point P describe the given circle (O_1,R) ; then its inverse, P', will describe the circle (O_1,P') , which has the segment A'B' as its diameter. The theorem has thus been proved.

If QQ' is the common outer tangent of the given circle $(O_1,\ R)$ and the inverse circle $(O_2,\ P')$ then the points of contact Q and Q' are always inverses of each other. The perpendicular at the point Q to the tangent QQ', intersects the line of centres OO_1 at the point O_2 , the centre of the circle inverse to the given one.

4. THE APPLICATION OF THE METHOD OF INVERSION TO THE GEOMETRY OF COMPASSES

The application of the method of inversion to the solution of geometrical construction problems by means of compasses alone yields a general approach to the solution of construction problems in the geometry of compasses.

The constructions of Mohr and Mascheroni, although extremely elegant, nevertheless are in most cases obtained by such artificial means that the question arises how each of these constructions was established.

<u>Problem 15.</u> To construct the point X, inverse of the given point C with respect to the circle of inversion (O, r).

C on struction. In the case of $OC > \frac{r}{2}$ (Fig. 26). We draw the circle (C,O) to meet the circle of inversion at the points D and D, . If, now, the circles (D,O) and (D_1,O) are drawn, then at the intersection we obtain the required point X.

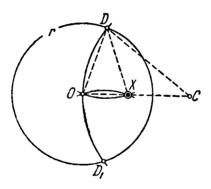


Fig. 26

Proof. From the similarity of the isosceles triangles

CDO and DOX we find

OC:OD = OD:OX

or

$$OC \cdot OX = OD^{\bullet} = r^{\bullet}$$

Note. It is easy to see that the above construction coincides with the solution of Problem 9 (First Method) when the segment AC = nAB is not constructed, but the point C is regarded as already given. Thus, the second method of solving Problem 9 can be used also in the construction of the inverse point X of the given point C; here the point C is given, and the construction of the segment AC = nAB should not be carried out. Construction in the case $OC \leq \frac{r}{2}$ (Fig. 27). The circle (C, O) will not intersect the circle of inversion, therefore we construct first the segment $OC_1 = nOC_2$, taking such a natural number n, that $OC_1 > \frac{r}{2}$ (Problem 2). We find the inverse point, C_1 , of C_2 (First method of construction of the problem under discussion). We construct the segment $OX = nOC_1$. The point X is inverse of the given point C.

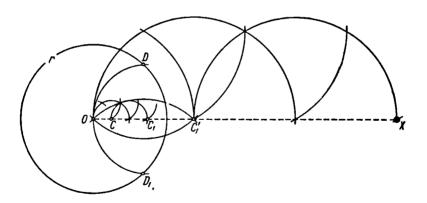


Fig. 27

Proof. Substituting $OC_1 = nOC$ and $OC_1' = \frac{OX}{n}$ in the equation $OC_1 \cdot OC_1' = r^2$, we get

$$OC_1 \cdot OC_1 = nOC \cdot \frac{OX}{n} = OC \cdot OX = r^2$$
.

Problem 16. Given the circle of inversion (0, r) and the straight line AB, which does not pass through the centre of inversion, construct the circle which is the inverse of the given straight line.

C on struction. We construct O_i , symmetrical to the centre of inversion O, with respect to the straight line AB (Problem 1). We find the point O_i , inverse of the point O_i (Problem 15). The circle (O_i, O) is inverse of the given straight line AB (Fig. 28).

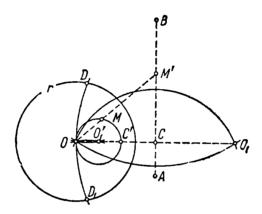


Fig. 28

Proof. Let C and C be the points of intersection of the straight line OO_1 with the given straight line AB and the circle (O_1', O) .

It follows from the above construction that

$$OO_1 \cdot OO_2 = r^2$$
, $OO_1 = 2OC$, $OC = 2OO_1$, $OC \perp AB$.

Hence

$$00_1 \cdot 00_1' = 20C \cdot \frac{0C'}{2} = 0C \cdot 0C = r^2$$
.

According to Theorem 3, the circle (O_1', O_1) is the inverse of the straight line AB.

<u>Problem 17.</u> To construct the straight line AB, which is the inverse of the given circle (O_1, R) passing through the

centre of inversion O.

Construct ion. If the given circle intersects the circle of inversion at the points A and B, then the straight line AB is the inverse of this circle. Otherwise, we take the points A, and B, (Fig. 29) on the given circle, and we construct their inverses, A and B (Problem 15). The straight line AB is the inverse of the given circle (O_1, R) . By varying the position of the points A, and B, on the given circle, it is possible to construct as many points of this straight line as required. The validity of this construction is self-evident (see Theorem 3).

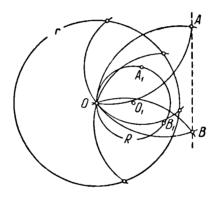


Fig. 29

<u>Problem 18. A given circle (O_1, R) does not pass through</u> the centre of inversion O_2 . Construct the circle which is inverse of the given one.

Construct i on. We take the given circle (O_i, R) as the circle of inversion and we construct the inverse point O' of the point O (Problem 15). Then we construct the inverse point O_i of the point O' with respect to the circle of inversion (O, r). The point O_i is the centre of the circle required (Fig. 30).

We take any point A on the given circle (O_1, R) and we find the inverse A'. The circle (O_1, A') is inverse of the given circle (O_1, R) .

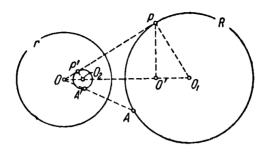


Fig. 30

Proof. Let PP' be the direct common tangent of the circles $(O_1,\ R)$ and $(O_2,\ A')$ and let PO' be perpendicular to OO_1 .

From the similarity of the triangles $\mathit{OPO'}$ and $\mathit{OP'O_s}$ we have

$$OO_{\bullet}: OP' = OP: OO'$$

or, alternatively

$$OO \cdot OO' = OP \cdot OP' = r^a$$

since the points P and P' are inverse. It follows from the last equation that the points O and O' are inverse with respect to the circle of inversion O.

In the right-angled triangle $OO_{\bullet}P$, the segment O'P is the altitude, therefore,

$$O_1O \cdot O_1O' = (\overline{O_1P})^2 = R^2$$
.

Thus, the point O' is the inverse of the point O with respect to the circle (O_1, R) if the latter is taken as the circle of inversion.

The point O is given. In construction, the point O' was found first, then the point O_* , the centre of the required circle, was found.

In Problems 15-18 it was shown how to construct figures to find the inverse of a point, a straight line and a circle, using compasses alone. We now examine a general method of solving geometrical construction problems with compasses alone.

Each construction carried out by means of compasses and a ruler gives a figure Φ in the plane of the drawing, consisting of separate points, straight lines and circles. The inverse figure Φ' of the figure Φ with respect to the circle (O, r), which is taken as the circle of inversion, with the centre O not lying on any of the straight lines and circles of figure Φ , consists only of points and circles.

Using Problems 15-18, we see that each of these points and straight lines can be constructed by compasses alone.

Now, let a certain construction problem, soluble by means of a ruler and compasses, be required to be solved by means of compasses alone.

Let us imagine that this problem has been solved by means of compasses and a ruler, as a result of which a certain figure Φ has been obtained, consisting of points, straight lines and circles. The construction of this figure was realized by carrying out a finite number of constructions of straight lines and circles in a definite order.

Let us take the most suitable circle of inversion $(O,\ r)$ and let us construct the figure Φ' , inverse of the figure Φ (Problems 15-18). The figure Φ' will consist of points and circles only, if, of course, the circle of inversion has been chosen such, that its centre does not lie on any of the straight lines or circles of figure Φ .

If we now construct the inverse of the figure which is taken as the result in the figure Φ' , then we arrive at the required result.

We should note here that we should carry out the construction of figure Φ' in the order in which the construction of figure Φ was carried out by means of compasses and a ruler.

By means of the method described above it is possible to solve by compasses alone each construction problem soluble by means of compasses and a ruler. The basic Mohr-Mascheroni result has been proved once again, this time with the help of the method of inversion.

The five simplest problems mentioned at the end of Section

1 can also be solved by the general method.

We take the solution of Problem 7 as an illustration of the general method of solving construction problems. We shall construct the point of intersection of two straight lines AB and CD, each of which is given by two points.

We take an arbitrary circle (O, r) in the plane, with centre O, not on any of the given straight lines, and we regard it as the circle of inversion. We construct the circles which are the inverses of the given straight lines and we mark their point of intersection X' (Problem 16). We construct the point X inverse of the point X' (Problem 15). X is the required point of intersection of the given straight lines AB and CD.

Here the figure Φ consists of two given straight lines AB and CD (more exactly, it consists of 4 given points A, B, C and D, through which we mentally draw the given lines); the figure Φ consists of two circles, inverses of the given straight lines AB and CD. The image taken as the result in figure Φ will be the point X'. The point X inverse of the point X' is the required result, the point of the intersection of the given straight lines.

Exactly in the same way, it is possible to solve Problem 6 (the fourth of the simplest problems) - to construct the points of intersection of a given straight line and a given circle. The solution of the problem will be considerably simplified at the same time. The truth of these constructions follows immediately from Theorem 1.

Problem 19. To find the centre of a given circle.

C on struction. We take a point O on the given circle, and with an arbitrary radius r we describe a circle (O,r) which intersects the given circle at the points A and B. We take the circle (O,r) as the circle of inversion and we construct the centre of the circle which is the inverse of the straight line AB (Problem 16). In order to carry out the latter construction, we draw the circles (A,O) and (B,O) until they meet at the point O, we describe the circle (O_1,O) and we mark the points D and D, of its intersection with the circle of inversion. The circles (D,O) and (D_1,O) define the required centre of the original circle (Fig. 31).

Proof. The points A and B are inverses of each other, since they lie on the circle of inversion. Thus, the given circle and the straight line AB are mutually inverse figures.

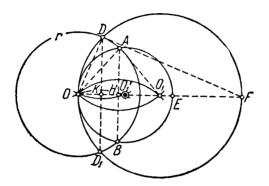


Fig. 31

In Problem 16 it was shown that the point O_i' was the required centre of the given circle, which, in this case, is the inverse of the straight line AB.

The attention of the reader should be drawn to the simplicity and elegance of the solution of the last problem.

In order to find the centre of the circle, six circles have been drawn*. This construction is simpler and more exact than the more usual construction with a ruler and compasses.

This problem, and also certain other problems in the geometry of compasses, as, for example, Problems 3 and 8 (Second Method) can be given to older pupils as exercises during geometry lessons. For this reason, we give a proof of the construction in Froblem 19, which is not based on the principle of inversion.

Proof. The straight line OO, is perpendicular to the chord AB of the given circle and passes through its midpoint,

^{*}Of course, on condition that the radius r is made greater than half of the radius of the given circle. Otherwise, there will be a greater number of circles (see the solution of Problem 17 - case 2).

therefore the required centre must lie on the straight line OO_1 . Let E and F be the points of intersection of the straight line OO_1 with the given circle and with the circle (O_1,O) . The segment OE is the diameter of the given circle.

Examining the right-angled triangles OAE and ODF, whose altitudes are the segments AH and DK, we find

$$OA^2 = OE \cdot OH$$
 and $OD^2 = OF \cdot OK$.

Taking into account that OD = OA = r, OF = 200, $OH = \frac{1}{2}OO$, and $OK = \frac{1}{2}OO$, we obtain

$$OE \cdot OH = OF \cdot OK$$

or

$$OE \frac{OO_1}{2} = 2 \cdot OO_1 \cdot \frac{OO_1'}{2}$$
.

Hence

$$OO'_1 = \frac{OE}{2}$$
.

Problem 20. Circumscribe a circle round a given triangle ABC.

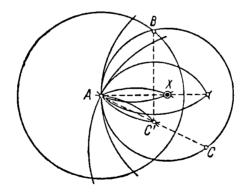


Fig. 32

C on struction. We describe the circle (A, B) and take it as the circle of inversion. We construct the inverse

point C of the point C (Problem 15). We construct the circle (X, A), which is the inverse of the straight line BC (Problem 16). (X, A) is the required circle, circumscribed round the triangle ABC.

Proof. The point B is its own inverse since it lies on the circle of inversion (A,B). The point C is the inverse of the point C. It follows that the circle passing through the given points A, B and C is the inverse of the straight line BC. And, as was shown in Problem 16, the point X is the centre of the required circle*.

N o t e. We can now give the following method of solving Problem 18. We take arbitrary points A, B and C on the given circle (O_1, R) and we construct their inverses, A', B' and C'. The circle, circumscribed round the triangle A'B'C', is the required inverse of the given circle.

^{*}In Problem 16 we constructed the centre of a circle, which is inverse of a given straight line. This construction was used in solving Problems 19 and 20.

Part 2

Geometric constructions by means of compasses alone but with restrictions

In Part One of this book we investigated constructions by means of compasses alone which we can now call the classical geometry of compasses.

In the theory of geometric constructions by means of compasses alone, the free use of the compasses is always understood; no restrictions are put on the size of the angle made by the legs.

With such compasses it is possible to draw circles with radii as large or as small as we please.

It is well known, however, that in practice, with actual compasses, it is possible to describe circles, whose radii are no larger than a certain length $R_{\rm max}$ and no smaller than a length $R_{\rm min}$. The length $R_{\rm max}$ corresponds to the maximal, and $R_{\rm min}$ to the minimal opening of the legs of the given compasses. If we denote by r the radius of a circle, which can be described with these compasses, the following inequality always holds:

$$R_{\min} \leq r \leq R_{\max}$$

We shall say that in this case the opening of the legs of the compasses is restricted from below by the length $R_{\rm min}$, and restricted from above by the length $R_{\rm max}$.

In Part Two we shall examine geometrical constructions by means of compasses alone, when certain restrictions are imposed on the opening of the legs.

5. CONSTRUCTIONS BY MEANS OF COMPASSES ALONE WITH THE OPENING OF THE LEGS RESTRICTED FROM ABOVE

In this chapter we shall use compasses the opening of whose legs is restricted, from above only, by the given length $R_{\rm max}$. With such compasses it is possible to describe circles whose radii do not exceed this length. For the sake of brevity, we shall henceforward write simply R, instead of $R_{\rm max}$.

If we denote the radius of a circle, which it is possible to draw with these compasses, by r, then we always have

$$0 < r \le R$$
.

Problem 21. To construct a segment, which is $\frac{1}{2^n}$ th part of a given segment AB (to divide the given segment AB into 2, 4, 8, ..., 2" equal parts).

It is not hard to verify that in the case when $AB \leq \frac{R}{2}$ * it is possible to use the construction contained in Problem 10; the radius of the greatest circle in that construction is equal to AC = 2AB < R **.

To verify the inequality $AB \leqslant \frac{1}{2}R$ or the inequality $R \geqslant 2AB$, the circle (A,R) has to be drawn; if the point B lies on the circumference (A,R) or outside of it, then R < 2AB; if the point B lies inside the circle, then AB < R, and, therefore, the segment 2AB can be constructed (Problem 2), and compared with the segment R by the means indicated above.

**In the first method of construction of Problem 10, it is necessary to check that $AD_u \leqslant R$ for all $u = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$

^{*}To compare two given segments AB and CD, one should describe the circle (A,CD); if the point B lies (a) inside this circle, then AB < CD, (b) on the circumference, then AB = CD, (c) outside the circle, then AB > CD.

C on struction in the case of AB < 2R *. With an arbitrary radius r we describe the circles (A, r) and (B, r) and we denote their points of intersection by C and D. Varying the size of the radius r, it is always possible to get CD to be less than or equal to $\frac{R}{2}$. Now we bisect the segment CD (Problem 10). We obtain a point X_1 . Obviously, the point X_1 bisects the given segment AB also.

Exactly in the same way we construct the point X_i , bisecting the segment AX_1 . The segment $AX_2=\frac{1}{4}AB\leqslant \frac{R}{2}$. The construction of points X_1,X_2,\ldots,X_n can be reduced to solving Problem 10.

If we increase $BX_n = \frac{AB}{2^n} 2^n$ times (Problem 2) we will have divided the segment AB into 2^n equal parts.

Problem 22. (The first basic operation). To construct one or several points on the straight line given by two points A and B **.

C on struction in the case when AB < 2R, is reducible to Problem 5.

C on struction in the case when $AB \geqslant 2R$. We describe the circles (B,R) and (A,r), where r is an arbitrary length, smaller than or equal to R. We take a point on the circumference of the circle (A,r), such that it should lie 'approximately' on the segment AB (i.e. such that the angle CAB is as small as possible), and we construct the segment

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \overline{AD}_n^2 = \lim_{n\to\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n}\right) a^2 =$$

$$= \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \dots\right) a^2 = \frac{a^4}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = 2a^2 = 2AB^4,$$

i.e. $AD_{\mu} < \sqrt{2}AB < R$.

^{*}If the circles (A,R) and (B,R) do not intersect, then AB>2R.

**As we have already remarked, we cannot draw a continuous straight line with compasses alone, still less with compasses the opening of whose legs is restricted. However, we shall be able to construct any number of points of this straight line.

AD = mAC (Problem 2, $AC = r \le R$. We pick the natural number m so that the point D lies inside the circle $(B, R)^*$.

Varying the position of the point C on the arc (A, r), and, if necessary, varying the size of the radius r, it is always possible to get the point D to lie inside the circle (B, R). At the same time we construct the segments $AC = \ldots = HD = \frac{AD}{m}$ (Fig. 33).

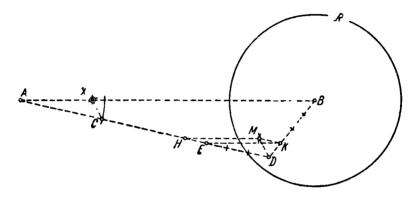


Fig. 33

Let us take a natural number n such that $2^{n-1} < m \le 2^n$. We construct the segment $DK = \frac{1}{2^n}BD$ (Problem 21, here BD < 2R). We divide the segment DH into 2^n equal parts (Problem 21, $DH = r \le R$) and we take a segment $DE = \frac{m}{2^n}DH$ (in Fig. 33, m = 3, $2^{n-1} < 3 < 2^n$, n = 2, $DE = \frac{3}{4}DH$).

We construct the parallelogram HEKM. To do this, it is necessary to draw the circles(H. EK) and (K, EH). (If, at the intersection of these circles, the point M is not clearly defined, then, in order to construct the point M, we should draw the circle(E. K) and mark off on it the chords KP = PT,

^{*}The point D does not need to lie inside the circle (B,R); it is important that BD should be less than 2R. The point should lie in the circle (B,2R) but we cannot describe such a circle with the given compasses.

equal to the radius EK. At the intersection of the circles (H, EK) and (P, TH) we get the point M.)

Finally, when we draw the circles (A, HM) and (C, DM), they will intersect at the required point X, lying on the straight line AB.

Further construction of points of the given straight line AB comes down to Problem $(AX \leq R)$.

Proof. From the construction we have

$$\frac{BD}{DK} = 2^n$$
 and $\frac{AD}{DE} = \frac{m AC}{\frac{m}{QD}} = 2^n$

Thus the triangles ADB and DEK are similar (the angle ADB is a common one). This means that

$$\not\subset DEK = \not\subset DAB$$
 and $EK \parallel AB$

As HM is parallel to EK (the figure HEKM is a parallelogram), therefore HM is parallel to AB. From the congruence of the triangles ACX and DHM it follows that AX is parallel to IIM, i.e. the point X lies on the straight line AB.

None of the radii of the circles drawn in this construction exceed the segment \boldsymbol{R} .

Note. If it turns out that $m=2^n$, i.e. if m takes one of the values 2, 4, 8, 16, ..., the construction of this problem is considerably simplified. In this case, the point E coincides with point H, and the point M coincides with the point K. The dividing of the segment DH into 2^n equal parts and the construction of the parallelogram EKMH is dispensed with in this case.

Thus, while varying the size of radius r, we should always try to make the number m take one of the values 2, 4, 8, 16, ...n.

Problem 23. To mark off from the point C to the right (or to the left) a segment parallel and equal to a given segment AB.

If the point C does not lie on the straight line AB, the problem is reduced to the construction of the parallelogram ABDC (or ABCD').

Construction in the case when $AB \leqslant R$. Let $AC \leqslant R$ and suppose that the point C does not lie on the straight line AB. We describe the circles (C,AB) and (B,AC) and we mark the point of their intersection D. The segment CD is the required one. The figure ABDC is a parallelogram.

If it is necessary to measure off the segment from the point C in the opposite direction, then we have to draw the circle (A, BC) instead of the circle (B, AC). In the case BC > R we cannot describe the circle (A, BC) with the given compasses. We can obtain the required point, however, if we construct on the circumference of the circle (C, AB) the point D', diametrically opposite to D. The figure ABD'C is the required parallelogram.

Now, let AC > R and BC > R (Fig. 34). We take an arbitrary row of points A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n in the direction from point A

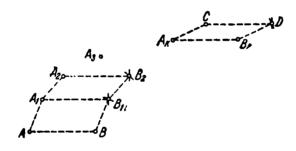


Fig. 34

towards point C, satisfying $AA_1 \leqslant R$, $A_1A_1 \leqslant R$, ..., $A_kC \leqslant R$, and we construct the parallelograms ABB_1A_1 , $A_1B_1B_2A_2$, ..., $A_{k-1}B_{k-1}B_kA_k$. Then we construct the parallelogram A_kB_kDC (or A_kB_kCD). The segment CD is the required one. This construction also holds in the case when the point C lies on the straight line AB.

If it turns out that the point A_i happens to lie on the straight line A_{i-1} B_{i-1} , then it will be necessary to take some other point instead of A_i .

C on struction in the case when AB > R. Making use of the solution of Problem 22, we construct points

 X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n on the segment AB, satisfying $AX_1 \leq R, X_1X_2 \leq R, \ldots, X_nB \leq R$.

We then construct parallelograms AX_1D_1C , $X_1X_1D_2D$, ..., X_{n-1} $X_nD_nD_{n-1}$, X_nBDD_n . The segment CD is the required one.

Problem 24. To construct a segment equal to $\frac{1}{2^n}$ th of a given segment AB in the case when $AB \ge 2R$ (to divide a segment into 2^n equal parts).

C on struction. On the given segment AB, we find a point C such that $AC \le R$ (Problem 22). We construct the segment AD = mAC (Problem 2) taking the number m such, that $AD \le AB$ and DB < R. In order to do that we repeat the segment AC two, three, etc. times until we approach the point B. If, at the end, the number m turns out to be odd, then we construct, in addition, the segment $DD_1 = AC$, then $AD_1 = (m+1)AC$, $AB < AD_1$ and $BD_1 < R$ (in Fig. 35, m = 6).

We bisect the segment BD (or BD, at point K (Problem 21, BD < R). We denote the midpoint of the segment AD (or AD,

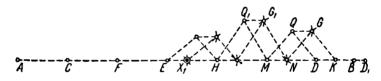


Fig. 35

by E, and we mark off the segment EX_1 , equal and parallel to the segment DK (Problem 23) in such a way, that $.AX_1 = AE + EX_1$ (or $AX_1 = AE - EX_2$, if the point E is the middle of the segment AD_1); to achieve that, we take the points Q, M, Q, H, ... and we construct parallelograms QDKG, MQGN, Q_1MNG_1 and so on*.

The point X, bisects the given segment AB. After that, we bisect the segment AX, and we obtain a quarter of the segment AB etc. If it happens that AX, <2R, we use the construction indicated in Problem 21, otherwise we carry out

^{*}The point X, will be constructed, if $AX_1 = AE + EX_1$ is constructed (see Note to Problem 6).

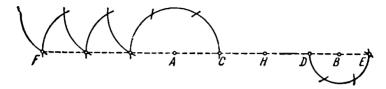


Fig. 36

the construction along lines similar to the above.

<u>Problem 25.</u> To construct a segment n times greater than the given segment AB in the case AB > R.

C on struction. On the given straight line AB we find a point C such that AC < R (Problem 22). We construct the segment AD = mAC (Problem 2, AC < R), picking the number m in such a way that $AD \le AB$ and DB < R. In order to do this it is necessary to repeat the segment AC two, three, etc. times, until we reach the point B.

Towards the right of the point D we construct the segment DE = nDB (Problem 2, DB < R). Finally, towards the left of the point C we construct the segment $AF = (n-1) \, mAC$ (the segment CF being equal to [(n-1)m+1]CA). The segment FE = nAB is the required one. (In Fig. 36, m=3, n=2.)

Proof. The segment

$$FE = FA + AD + DE =$$

$$= (n-1) mAC + mAC + nDB = nmAC + nDB =$$

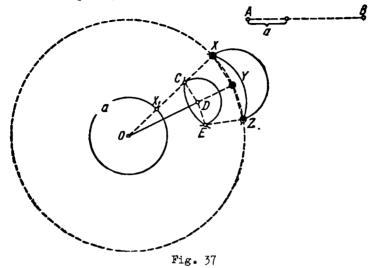
$$= n(mAC + DB) = n(AD + DB) = nAB.$$

N o t e. In order that the left end of the constructed segment should coincide with point A, it is necessary to mark off beforehand, to the right of the point E, the segment EK, equal and parallel to the segment HD(AC = HD) (Problem 23) and then, in place of segment AF, to construct EM = (n-1) mEK. Then AM = nAB.

<u>Problem 26.</u> (The second basic operation). From a given centre O. to describe a circle of a given radius AB.

Construction. If $AB \leq R$ then the circle can

be described directly by means of the given compasses with a restricted opening. If AB > R, then we cannot draw a circle



in the form of a continuous curve with the given compasses. However, in this case, any number of points can be constructed as close together as desired on the required circle, whose centre and radius is given (Fig. 37).

We construct the segment $a = \frac{AB}{2^n}$ (Problems 21 and 24), taking the number n such that $a \leqslant R$. We describe the circle (O,a), and take an arbitrary point X_i on it and we construct the segment $OX = 2^nOX_i$ (Problem 2, $OX_i = a \leqslant R$). The point X lies on the circle (O,AB). Varying the position of point X_i on the circumference (O,a) it is possible to construct as many points of the required circumference as desired. When the points X and Y of the required circumference are already constructed, and if $XY \leqslant R$, $DX \leqslant R$, then one can proceed to construct further points of the circumference as follows. We describe the circles (D,C) and (Y,C). At their intersection we obtain the point E. If we then draw the circles (Z,Y) and (E,Y), we shall have constructed one more point on the circumference, and so on.

Proof. The segment $OX = 2^n \cdot n = 2^n \cdot \frac{AB}{n^n} = AB$.

Problem 27. (The third basic operation). To find the points of intersection of two given circles (O, AB) and (O_1, CD) .

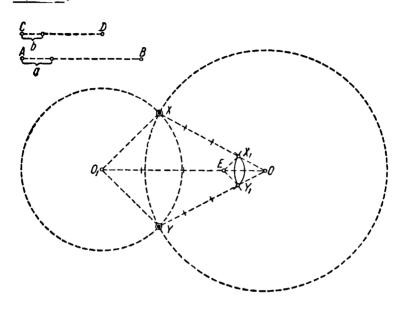


Fig. 38

C on struction. If the radii of both circles are no greater than R, the construction of the points of intersection is carried out directly by means of the compasses.

Let us now suppose that the radius of one or both given circles is greater than R .

We construct the segments $a = \frac{AB}{2^n}$, $b = \frac{CD}{2^n}$ and $OE = \frac{OO_1}{2^n}$ (Problems 21 and 24); we take the number n such that $a \le R$ and $b \le R$ (Fig. 38).

We describe the circles (O,a) and (E,b) and we note their points of intersection, X_1 and Y_2 .

If we now construct the segments $OX^n = 2^n OX_1$ and $OY = 2^n OY_1$, we obtain the required points of intersection X and Y of the given circles (O, AB) and (O_1, CD) .

Proof.

$$OX = 2^{n} \cdot a = 2^{n} \cdot \frac{AB}{2^{n}} = AB,$$

$$OY = 2^{n} \cdot \frac{AB}{2^{n}} = AB.$$

It follows from the similarity of triangles OXO_1 and $OX_1E\left(\frac{OX}{OX_1}=\frac{OO_1}{OE}=2^n\right)$, the angle O_1OX is common) that

$$O_1X = 2^n \cdot EX_1 = 2^n \cdot \frac{CD}{2^n} = CD.$$

In exactly the same way we obtain O, Y = CD.

Problem 28. To construct the point C, symmetrical to a given point C, with respect to a given straight line AB.

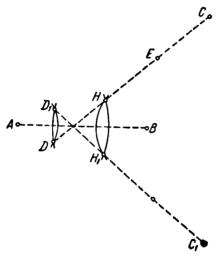


Fig. 39

Construction for the case $AC \leq R$ and $BC \leq R$ is given in Problem 1. If the distance of the point C from the given straight line AB is less than R, then, making use of Problem 22, it is possible to find points A_1 and B_1 on the straight line, such that $CA_1 \leq R$ and $CB_1 \leq R$. Now, let the distance of the point C from the straight line AB be greater than R. We can take $AB \leq 2R$; otherwise we can find such points on

the given straight line using Problem 22.

We take an arbitrary point E in the plane, such that $CE \leq R$ and the straight line CE passes between the points A and B. We construct the segment CD = mCE, for which we make $CE = \dots = HD$ (Problem 2). We pick the point E and number m in such a way that the segments AD, AH, BD and BH should not be greater than R.

We find points D_1 and H_1 , symmetrical to points D and H with respect to the given straight line (Problem 1). We construct the segment $D_1C_1=mD_1H_1$. The point C_1 is the required one, symmetrical to the given point C with respect to the straight line AB (Fig. 39).

The validity of the construction is obvious.

Problem 29. (The fourth basic operation). To find the points of intersection of a given circle (O, CD) and a straight line, given by two points A and B.

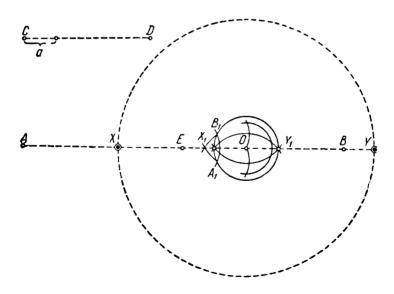


Fig. 40

C o n s t r u c t i o n in the case when the straight line does not pass through the centre of the circle.

We construct the point O_1 , symmetrical to the centre O of the given circle with respect to the straight line AB (Problem 28). We define the points of intersection X and Y of the circles (O,CD) and (O_1,CD) (Problem 27). The points X and Y are the required ones.

C on struction in the case when the straight line passes through the centre of the circle*(Fig. 40). We construct the segment $r=\frac{CD}{2^n}$ with the condition that $r\leqslant\frac{R}{2}$ (Problems 21 and 24). We describe the circle $(O,\,r)$ and we intersect it at points A_i and B_i by means of the circle $(A,\,d)$ or $(B,\,d)$ where d is an arbitrary radius, less than or equal to R_i . When $d=R_i$, even if the circles $(B,\,R)$ or $(A,\,R)$ do not intersect the circle $(O,\,r)$ (in this case, OA>R+r and OB>R+r), then using Problem 22 we find a point E on the straight line AB such that OE<R+r; the circle $(E,\,d)$ intersects $(O,\,r)$ in points A_i and B_i . By varying the size of radius d, we should get the segment a to equal $A_iB_i\leqslant \frac{R}{2}$.

We divide both arcs A_iB_i of the circle (O,r) in half at points X_i and Y_i (Problem 4). We construct segments $OX = 2^nOX_i$ and $OY = 2^nOY$ (Problem 2, $OX_i = OY_i = r \le \frac{R}{2}$). Points X and Y are the required points of intersection of the given straight line and the given circle.

The largest circle drawn in this construction is drawn when the arc A_iB_i is bisected. When an arc is divided in half (see Problem 4) the radius of the largest circle equals $BC = \sqrt{2a^4 + r^4} \quad \text{(see Fig. 5)}. \quad \text{In our construction that radius is } \sqrt{2a^4 + r^4} \leqslant \sqrt{2\left(\frac{R}{2}\right)^4 + \left(\frac{R}{2}\right)^4} \leqslant R \quad .$

Problem 30. To construct a segment, which is fourth proportional to three given segments a, b and c.

Construction. If $a \le R$, $b \le R$ and $c \le R$, the construction is given in Problem 3. Now let at least

^{*}To check this fact see note to Problem 1.

one of the above inequalities be invalid. We construct segments $a_1=\frac{a}{2^n}$, $b_1=\frac{b}{2^n}$ and $c_1=\frac{c}{c}$ (Problems 21 and 24), picking natural numbers n and n, such that $a_1\leqslant R$, $b_1\leqslant R$, $c_1\leqslant R$ and $c_1\leqslant 2a_1$.

We construct the segment x_i , the fourth proportional to the segments a_i , b_i and c_i .

If we now construct the segment $x=2^mx$, (Problems 2 and 25), we shall find the required segment, the fourth proportional of three given segments a, b and c.

Proof. The proportion

$$\frac{a}{2^n}: \frac{b}{2^n} = \frac{c}{2^m}: x_1$$

can be written thus

$$a:b=c:2^{m}x_{1}$$

Problem 31. (The fifth basic operation). To construct the point of intersection of the given straight lines AB and CD, each of which is defined by two points.

 ${\tt C}$ on struction of the point of intersection of the given straight lines with compasses with a restricted opening can be carried out in the same way as in Problem 7, however, instead of Problems 1 and 3, we make use of Problems 28 and 30 respectively. To find point ${\tt E}$ we apply Problem 27.

Note. Making use of Problem 22 we can take the points A,B,C and D, which define the given straight lines so close to each other that all circles drawn in this construction will have radii not greater than R and so can be drawn with compasses with a restricted opening of the legs.

On the basis of the discussion in this chapter we come to the following conclusion.

All five basic operations (simplest problems) can be carried out (solved) with compasses, describing circles whose radii do not exceed some prescribed length R.

Each geometrical construction problem soluble by means

of compasses and a ruler can always be reduced to carrying out (in a certain order) a finite sequence of basic operations (Section) I).

Thus, the following theorem holds.

The orem. All geometrical construction problems soluble by means of compasses and a ruler can be solved exactly using only compasses capable of describing circles whose radii do not exceed a certain prescribed length.

We now investigate a general method of solving construction problems by means of compasses the opening of whose legs is restricted from above by the segment R .

Suppose that it is required to solve a certain construction problem, soluble by means of compasses and a ruler, using only compasses with a restricted opening. Let us imagine this problem solved by means of compasses alone in the classical sense, using the compasses freely, when the opening of the legs is not restricted in any way. As a result, we obtain a certain figure Φ , consisting of a finite number of circles only. Let us denote the largest of the radii of all the circles constituting the figure Φ by R.

If it turns out that $R,\leqslant R$, then the construction mentioned can be carried out by means of the given compasses with a restricted opening of the legs.

Now, let $R_1 \!>\! R$. Let us take a natural number n, such that $\frac{R_1}{2^n} \! \leq\! R$. Now if all the segments, including those segments which define the radii of the given circles, were made 2^n times smaller than they are, and the problem were then solved by means of the given compasses, we should obtain the figure Φ_1 as a result. It will be similar to the figure Φ , the coefficient of similarity being $\frac{1}{2^n}$. All the circles of figure Φ can be drawn with the given compasses as their radii are no greater than $\frac{R_1}{2^n}\left(\frac{R_1}{2^n}\!\leqslant\! R\right)$.

It must be noted here, that if among the conditions of a problem a certain figure W is given in the plane of the drawing, then it is necessary to take one of the points of the figure as the centre of similitude O and to construct a similar figure W'' with the coefficient of similarity $\frac{1}{2^n}$ (that

is, to make the figure W 2 times smaller).

Let us denote by Ψ' that part of the figure Φ' , which is the required result. We construct the figure Ψ , similar to the figure Ψ' with centre of similarity 0 and coefficient of similarity 0 (we make figure 0, 0 times larger), for which we construct the segments

$$OX_1 = 2^n OX_1'$$
, $OX_2 = 2^n OX_2'$, ..., $OX_k = 2^n OX_k$

where X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k denote all points of intersection of the circles in the figure Ψ and all the centres of these circles. The points X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k of the figure Ψ denote the centres and points of intersection of the circles, which make up that figure.

The figure Ψ represents the required result of the solution of the given problem. Straight lines and circles whose radii are greater than R cannot be drawn in figure with the given compasses; they can be constructed in the form of points, as close to each other as desired (Problems 22 and 26).

To illustrate the above arguments we give the solution of Problem 27. In this solution Φ consists of circles (O,AB) and (O_1,CD) . The given elements are two points O and O_1 (representing the given figure W) and two segments AB and CD. The figure Φ consists of circles (O,a) and (E,b) (together with the centres O and E).

The figure Ψ' , taken as the required result in the figure Φ' , consists of two points X_i and Y_i . The required result of the solution is the figure Ψ consisting of points X and Y. O is the centre of similitude (in Fig. 38, 2" was taken as 4 and n as 2).

Usually in solving construction problems the number n is unknown, since we cannot construct figure Φ with the given compasses, which means we cannot know the radius R_1 of the largest of the circles. Taking this circumstance into account we carry out the solution of the problem with the given compasses (with a restricted opening) until we come to a circle with the radius $r_1 > R$. We select the natural number n_1 in such a way that $\frac{r_1}{2^{n_1}} \leqslant R$. We diminish the given segments 2^{n_1} times and we begin the solution of the given problem anew; as a result we shall either solve the problem

completely and construct the figure Φ' , or we shall again arrive at a circle of radius $r_* > R$. We select the natural number $n_*\left(\frac{r_*}{2^{n_*}} \leqslant R\right)$ and again we diminish the segments 2^{n_*} times and so on. After a finite number of steps the figure Φ' will be constructed.

Using the general method of solution, it is easy to construct by means of compasses with a restricted opening the inverse figures of a point, a straight line or a circle.

In concluding this section we examine the solution of the following problem.

Problem 32. To divide the given segment AB=a into five equal parts, if we cannot have a segment five times as large as AB.

In the extensive work of Mascheroni ('The Geometry of Compasses') this problem is the only one solved with the restriction indicated in its conditions.

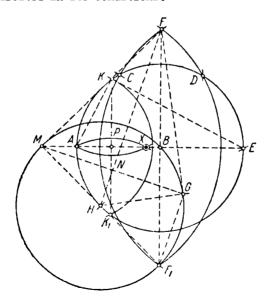


Fig. 41

C o n s t r u c t i o n. We describe the circle (B, A) and we make AC = CD = DE = a (Fig. 41). We draw the circles (A, D) and (E, C) until they meet at the points F and F,. We mark the point H of intersection of the circle (F_1, AB) with the circle (B, A). We then describe the circles (H, F_1) and (F, AE) and at their intersection we obtain the point G. On the circle (B, A) we mark off the chords $AK = AK = F_1G$. If we draw the circles (K, A) and (K_1, A) , their point of intersection is the required point X. The segment $BX = \frac{1}{5}AB$.

P r o o f. Let the point M on the circle (H, F_1) be diametrically opposite to the point F_1 and let the point N be the point of intersection of the straight lines HF and MG. The segment $BF = BF_1 = \sqrt{2} AB$. The length of the tangent from the point F to the circle (H, F_1) is equal to

$$b = \sqrt{FF \cdot FB} = \sqrt{2 \sqrt{2} AB \cdot \sqrt{2} AB} = 2AB$$

But, on the other hand, FG = 2AB; this means that the straight line FO touches the circle (H, F_1) at the point O.

From the right-angled triangle FGH we have

$$HF = V \overline{HO^2 + OF^2} = V \overline{5} AB$$

The triangle $F_{\cdot}MF_{\cdot}$ is isosceles, since the angle $F_{\cdot}BM$ is a right angle, supported by the diameter $F_{\cdot}M$ of the circle (H, F_{\cdot}) . This means that $MF_{\cdot} = MF = 2AB$.

The triangle MGF is also isosceles (MF = FG = 2 AB), therefore MG is perpendicular to HF.

From the right-angled triangle HGF, whose altitude is the segment GN, we obtain

$$HG^2 = a^2 = HF \cdot HN = \sqrt{5} a \cdot HN$$

or

$$HN = \frac{a}{\sqrt{5}}$$
.

From the right-angled triangles HNG and MGF₁, we find $NG = \sqrt{a^2 - \left(\frac{a}{\sqrt{5}}\right)^2} = \frac{2a}{\sqrt{5}} = \frac{1}{2} MG,$ $GF_1^2 = 4a^2 - \frac{16a^2}{5} = \frac{4a^2}{5}.$

and, finally, from the right-angled triangle AKE we have

$$AK^2 = GF_1^2 = AE \cdot AP = 2AB \cdot \frac{AX}{2} = AX \cdot AB$$
.

or

$$AX = \frac{GF_1^4}{a} = \frac{4a}{5}$$
.

Hence

$$BX = \frac{1}{5} AB$$
.

CONSTRUCTIONS BY MEANS OF COMPASSES ALONE, WITH THE ANGLE RESTRICTED FROM BELOW

In this chapter we shall make use of compasses the opening of whose legs is restricted only from below by the prescribed lengths R_{\min} . With such compasses it is possible to draw circles of any radius greater than or equal to the segment R_{\min} . In the following, we shall simply write R instead of R_{\min} .

Problem 33. To construct a segment n times as large as a given segment AA.

C on struction. We construct the segment A,E perpendicular to the given segment AA, (Problem 8, we take $OA \ge R$). We define the point E', symmetrical to the point E with respect to the straight line AA, (Problem 1, here AE > R and A,E > R). We construct the point A, symmetrical to the point A with respect to the straight line EE'. The segment AA, = 2AA, (Fig. 42).

We then describe the circle (E,A) and we mark off chords $AB_1 = B_1C_1 = C_1E_1$ equal to the radius. The segment A_1E_1 is perpendicular to AA_1 . We find the point E_1 , symmetrical to the point E_1 with respect to the straight line AA_1 . If we now construct points A_1 and A_2 , symmetrical to points A_1 and A_2 respectively, we have

$$AA_3 = 3AA_1$$
, $AA_4 = 4AA_1$.

Further construction is repeated similarly. If $AA_1 \geqslant R$, then the construction is given in Problem 2.

The radii of all the circles drawn in this construction are not less than the segment R.

Note. From the demonstrated construction it is obvious that the points A_1 , A_4 , A_4 , A_4 , ... can be constructed straight away, missing out the construction of the points A_4 , A_4 , A_4 , ... i.e. the segments 2, 4, 8, 16, ..., 2^n times as

large as the given segment AA, can be found immediately.

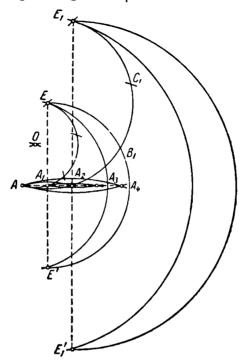


Fig. 42

Problem 34. To construct a segment equal to 1 th of the given segment AB (i.e. to divide a segment into n equal parts).

C on struction. If $AB \geqslant R$, then the construction is given in Problem 9.

Now, let AB < R. We construct the segment AB' = mAB (Problem 33) and we take such a natural number m, that $AB' \ge R$. We divide the segment into $n \cdot m$ equal parts (Problem 9). We shall obtain the required segment $AX = \frac{AB'}{n \cdot m}$.

Indeed,
$$AX = \frac{AB'}{n \cdot m} = \frac{mAB}{n \cdot m} = \frac{AB}{n}$$
.

Note: In this case, if we apply the construction of Problem 10 instead of Problem 9, we obtain the segment $AX = \frac{1}{2\pi}AB$.

The solution of Problem 5 is also suitable for compasses with opening restricted from below.

Problem 35. The second basic operation. Using the point O as centre, to describe a circle of radius AB = r.

C o n s t r u c t i o n. If $AB \ge R$, then the circle can be drawn directly. If AB < R then we cannot describe the circle as a continuous curve with the given compasses; in this case it is possible to construct any number of points situated as closely together as desired on the circumference of the circle defined given by its centre and radius.

Let AB < R. With an arbitrary radius a > R + r we describe the circles (O, a) and (A, a) and we take two points C and D on the second circle, such that $CD \ge R$. If, now, we mark off the chord $C_1D_1 = CD$ on the circle (O, a) and we describe the circles (C_1, CB) and (D_1, DB) , we obtain at their intersection the point X, which lies on the required circle (O, r). By varying the position of the chord C_1D_1 of the circle (O, a) it is possible to construct any desired number of points of the required circle.

The truth of the construction described follows immediately from the congruence of the triangles $ACD = OC_1D_1$ and $BCD = XC_1D_1$

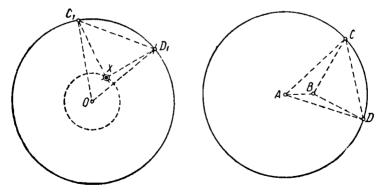


Fig. 43

We shall now indicate a general method of solving geometrical construction problems using only compasses whose opening is restricted from below by the length R. By this method it is possible to solve every construction problem soluble by means of compasses and a ruler, including the third, fourth and fifth basic problems.

The general method of solving problems with compasses which describe circles of radius not less than R coincides with the general method of solving problems described in Section 5.

The difference between these methods lies in the fact that the segments given in the conditions of the problem have not to be diminished 2^n times but, quite the reverse, increased n times (or 2^n times) (Problem 33). After that, we have to construct the figure Φ' , which is similar to figure Φ and n times as large as it. The number n is picked in such a way that all the circles of figure Φ' have radii larger than R and therefore can be described with the given compasses $\binom{nP_1 > R}{n}$, where R_1 is the radius of the smallest circle of figure Φ).

The figure Ψ , representing the required result of solving the problem, is constructed n times less than the figure Ψ (Problem 34). Thus we arrive at the following theorem.

The ore m. All geometrical construction problems soluble by means of compasses and a ruler can be solved exactly using only compasses which describes circles whose radii are not less than a certain prescribed length.

7. CONSTRUCTIONS USING ONLY COMPASSES WITH CONSTANT OPENING OF LEGS

Geometric constructions with compasses with a constant opening of the legs, with which it is possible to describe only circles of fixed radius R, were investigated by many scholars. A large part of the work 'The Book of Geometrical Constructions' of the Arab mathematician Abu Yaf is devoted to this subject. Leonardo da Vinci, Cardano, Tartaglia, Ferrari and others have occupied themselves with solving construction problems using only compasses with a constant opening.

By means of compasses with a constant opening equal to R we can raise a perpendicular at one end of the segment AB, only if AB < 2R (Problem 8); we can make a segment 2, 3, 4, ... times as large as a given one (Problem 2). If AB < 2R and $AB \neq R$ it is possible to construct the points of a straight line AB (Problem 5) altering the position of the symmetrical points C and C, each time. We cannot, however, divide segments and arcs into equal parts, find proportional segments and so on, with these compasses.

Thus, it is impossible to solve all construction problems, soluble by means of compasses and a ruler, using only compasses with a constant opening.

Taking into account results obtained in Sections 5-7, it is necessary to note that at the moment the question of the possibility of solving geometrical construction problems by means of compasses with a restricted opening of the legs from above and from below simultaneously, i.e. with compasses describing circles of radius not smaller than $R_{\rm min}$ and not greater than $R_{\rm max}$, remains open. What problems can be solved with the help of such compasses? Is it possible to solve all construction problems soluble by means of compasses and a ruler with them?

If it is, can the difference $R_{\max}-R_{\min}$ be made as small as desired? In other words, is it possible to solve all

construction problems, soluble by means of compasses and a ruler, by the help of compasses with a 'nearly' constant opening alone? As has already been noted at the beginning of this chapter, all these problems cannot be solved by means of compasses with a constant opening*.

It seems to us that the following problems, as yet hardly discussed in the literature, are not without interest.

- 1. The investigation of solving geometrical construction problems by means of compasses with a restricted opening (from above only, or from below only, or from above and below at the same time) and with a ruler of a constant length. The indication of the simplest methods of construction.
- 2. Examination of geometrical constructions by means of a ruler alone (constructions of Steiner), when an auxiliary circle (O,R) is given in the plane of the drawing and the ruler has a constant length l. Here, the cases l < R and l > R are important.

^{*}For carrying out geometrical constructions, k compasses might be given, each of which has an opening restricted simultaneously from below and from above. The opening of the first compasses might be restricted by the lengths r_i , and R_i , of the second one by lengths r_i and R_i , ... of the kth one by the lengths r_k and R_k , $k = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$

8. CONSTRUCTIONS WITH COMPASSES ALONE ON CONDITION THAT ALL CIRCLES PASS THROUGH THE SAME POINT

In this section we shall consider the solution of geometrical construction problems with compasses alone on condition that all circles that are drawn pass through one point in the plane*.

Definition. The angle of intersection of two circles (in general of two curves) is understood to be the angle made by the tangents to the circles (curves) at their points of intersection. The circles are said to be orthogonal if they intersect at right angles.

The orem 1. If the circle (O, R) intersects the circle of inversion (O, r) orthogonally, then it is its own inverse**.

Proof. If the circles intersect orthogonally, then the angle OAO, formed by their radii at the intersection of the circles is a right angle. This means that the straight line OA is a tangent to the circle (O,R) at the point A, and

$$OP \cdot OP' = OA^2 = r^2$$

The last equation is true for any secant OP. The point P is the inverse of the point P. The arc APA, of the circle (O_1, R) is the inverse of the arc AP'A, (Fig. 44).

In Problem 11 we were given the construction of a segment 3^n times as large as a given segment AA_0 . In carrying out this construction all circles pass through the point A. The only exception is the circle (A, A_0) which is drawn in order to define the points E and E' when the chords $AE \Longrightarrow EC$ and $AE' \Longrightarrow E'C'$ are drawn. The circle (A, A_0) , however, does not need to be drawn, but the following steps can be taken.

^{*}In this section no restrictions are put on the extent of the opening of the compasses.

^{**}The converse theorem is also true but it will not be used in this chapter.

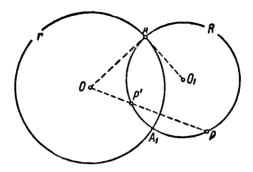


Fig. 44

We make the opening of the compasses equal to AA_0 and we place the point of the pencil at the point A, then, without changing the opening of the compasses we set them up in such a way that the sharp end of the needle falls on the arc of the circle (A_0,A) . The sharp end of the needle of the compasses will rest at point E or E'. If we now describe the circle (E,A), then at its intersection with the circle (A_0,A) we have constructed the point C. In just the same way it is possible to construct the point C'.

And so it is possible to construct a segment 3" times as large as a given one (Problem 11) in such a way that all circles pass through the same point.

The solutions of Problems 15, 16, 17 are found in such a way (see Figs. 26, 28, 29) that all circles pass through the same point O - the centre of inversion.

In the construction of the point X, which is the inverse of point C in the case $OC \leq \frac{r}{2}$ (Problem 15), in order that all drawn circles without exception should pass through the one point O, it is necessary to construct the segment $OC_1 = 3^n \cdot OC > \frac{r}{2}$ (Problem 11, account being taken of remarks made at the beginning of this section) instead of the segment $OC_1 = nOC_1 > \frac{r}{2}$ (Fig. 27) and to construct $OX = 3^n \cdot OC_1$.

Thus, with the help of compasses alone, it is possible to construct the inverse of a given point, to construct a circle passing through the centre of inversion, the inverse of a given straight line, and to construct a straight line which is the inverse of the circle that passes through O, drawing all circles through the same point O the centre of inversion.

As we noted in the Introduction, Steiner showed that all construction problems, soluble by means of a ruler and compasses, can also be solved by means of a ruler alone, if in the plane of the drawing there is a given constant (auxiliary) circle (O, R) and its centre.

Now, let us suppose that a certain construction problem was solved by Steiner's method; as a result we shall obtain a figure Φ in the plane of the drawing, consisting apart from the auxiliary circle of straight lines only. Let us take an arbitrary circle (O,r), the only condition being that its centre O does not lie on the circle (O,R) and does not lie on any of the straight lines of figure Φ and let us take it as the circle of inversion. We construct the figure Φ' which is the inverse of figure Φ . The figure Φ' so constructed will consist of circles only, all of which (with the exception of two: the circle of inversion (O,r) and the circle, inverse of (O,R)) will pass through the same point O the centre of inversion.

If the circle of inversion (O,r) intersects the auxiliary circle (O,R) at a right angle then, by Theorem 1, the circle (O,R) is self-inverse. The figure Φ consists of straight lines, the circle (O,R) and, perhaps, some isolated points; the inverse figure Φ consists of the circle (O,R), circles passing through the centre of inversion O, inverse of the straight lines and, perhaps, some isolated points. To construct the figure Φ it is necessary to make use of Problems 15 and 16 only.

Thus, in the construction of figure Φ' , the inverse of figure Φ , in the case when the circle of inversion intersects the auxiliary circle at right angles, all circles, including the circles with whose help Φ' is constructed, will pass through the same point O, there being only two exceptions: the circle of inversion (O,r) and the circle (O,R).

In order to illustrate the above, we shall solve the following problem.

Problem 36. The circle (O, R) and a point A on it are given. To drop a perpendicular from the given point C to the straight line O, A by means of a ruler alone.

C on struction. We draw the straight line O_1A and produce it to intersect the given circle at the point B. We draw the straight lines AC and BC and mark the points E and D of their intersection with the circle (O_1, R) . If we now draw the straight lines AD and BE until they meet at the point F, then the straight line CF will be perpendicular to the straight line O_1A . Let us denote the foot of the perpendicular by H(Fig. 45).

P r o o f. The segments CD and EF are the altitudes of the triangle AFC, since the angles ADB and AEB are right angles, therefore FC is perpendicular to AB, as the three altitudes of the triangle intersect each other at one point B.

The figure Φ in this problem consists of the circle (O_1,R) and six straight lines AB, AC, AD, CD, CF and EF. First we arrange the point O and the radius r so as to cause the

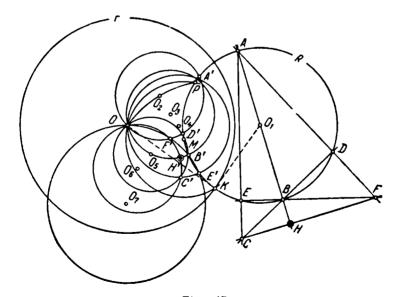


Fig. 45

circles (O, r) and (O, R) to intersect orthogonally. To do this we make use of the solution of Problem 8 (Second Method); we take two random points K and M on the circle (O, R) and we construct KO perpendicular to KO, (Problem 8) for which we draw the circles (M, K) and (P, K) until they meet at the point O (Fig. 45). The point P is obtained at the intersection of the circles (M, K) and (O, R).

Varying the position of the points K and M it is possible to construct a point O which does not lie on any of the straight lines of figure Φ . The circle (O, K) intersects the given circle (O, R) at a right angle, and can be taken as the circle of inversion OK = r.

The figure Φ' , inverse of the figure Φ , consists of seven circles $(O_2,O),\ (O_3,O),\ (O_4,O),\ (O_4,O),\ (O_5,O),\ (O_7,O)$ and (O_1,R) [the circle (O_1,R) is self-inverse]. The first six circles pass through the centre of inversion O and they are correspondingly inverse to the straight lines AF, AB, AE, CD, CF and EF of figure Φ . The points A', B', C', D', E', F' and H' of the figure Φ are inverse of the points A, B, C, D, E, F and H respectively. All circles drawn to construct the first six circles of figure Φ' , and also the circles (M,K) and (K,P) drawn to define the centre of inversion O, pass through the same point O in the plane.

Hence we have the theorem:

The crem 2. Every geometrical construction problem, soluble by means of compasses and a ruler. can be solved by means of compasses alone in such a way that all circles of the construction, except two, the circle of inversion and the auxiliary circle of Steiner, pass through the same point — the centre of inversion O.

Now, let a certain problem be solved by Steiner's method. As a result we obtain the figure Φ consisting of the circle (O_1,R) and straight lines, some of which pass through the centre O. If the auxiliary circle (O_1,R) be taken as the circle of inversion, and the figure Φ' , inverse of Φ , be constructed, then the constructed figure Φ' will consist of straight lines and circles, all these straight lines and circles passing through one and the same predetermined point*.

*Adler [1] states (Chapter XX) that, if the auxiliary circle of Steiner (O_1, R) is taken as the circle of inversion, then 'Not only is it possible, as had been shown by Mascheroni,

Hence a theorem.

Theorem 3. Every geometric construction problem can always be solved by means of a ruler and compasses in such a way that all straight lines and circles except one (the circle of inversion) pass through one predetermined point - the centre of inversion.

Suppose now that in the solution of geometrical construction problems by means of compasses alone the use of a ruler is permitted once. (Or let us suppose, that the straight line AB has been drawn by means of a ruler in the plane of the drawing.) Let us take an arbitrary circle (O,r) with centre O, not on the straight line AB, as the circle of inversion, and let us construct the circle (O_1,R) , inverse of the given straight line (Problem 16). The circle (O_1,R) passes through the centre of inversion O and $R=OO_1$.

The solution of any problem on construction by Steiner's method, with an auxiliary circle $(O_1,\ R)$ gives the figure Φ , consisting only of straight lines and the circle $(O_1,\ R)$; the inverse figure Φ will consist, apart from the straight line AB, of circles only, passing through the centre of inversion O. At the same time we presuppose that none of the straight lines of the solution by Steiner's method had passed through the point O, lying on the auxiliary circle $(O_1,\ R)$, otherwise another circle should be taken as the circle of inversion $(O,\ r)$.

If the straight line AB has not been drawn, but the single use of a ruler is permitted, then we take an arbitrary circle (O, R) in the plane of the drawing as an auxiliary and we

to solve all geometrical construction problems of the second degree with the exclusive use of compasses, but it is possible to add the condition, that all circles included in the construction, except one of them, should pass through the same arbitrarily selected point!.

The error of this statement follows from the fact that all construction problems, soluble by means of compasses and a ruler, are incapable of being solved by means of a ruler alone, if the centre of the auxiliary circle O is unknown, i.e. if no straight lines are passed through the centre O [the lines being self-inverse (Theorem 2, Section 3) and, therefore, belonging to figure Φ'].

solve the given problem by Steiner's method. Then we take an arbitrary point O on the circumference of that circle, on condition that it should not lie on any of the straight lines of the figure Φ . With the radius r < 2R, we describe the circle (O,r) and we mark its points of intersection with the circle (O,R) by A and B. We take the ruler and draw the straight line AB, which is the inverse of the circle (O,R) if we regard (O,r) as the circle of inversion.

Then we construct figure Φ' , the inverse of figure Φ .

Theorem 4. If a straight line is drawn in the plane of the drawing, then all construction problems soluble by means of compasses and a ruler can be solved by means of compasses alone in such a way that all circles of this construction, except one (the circle of inversion) will pass through the same point of the plane.

This theorem is to a certain extent analogous to the basic theorem of Steiner for constructions with a ruler alone with a constant circle.

Now, let there be drawn in the plane of the drawing by means of a ruler a certain figure Ψ consisting of straight lines and segments (for instance, two parallel lines or a parallelogram and so on).

Let us suppose that we solved a certain construction problem by Steiner's method taking the figure Ψ as an auxiliary one. As a result we obtain a certain figure Φ consisting of straight lines only. The figure Ψ is a part of the figure Φ .

Let us take an arbitrary circle (O,r) on condition that its centre does not lie on any of the straight lines of the figure Φ , as the circle of inversion, and let us construct the figure Φ' , inverse of the figure Φ . The figure Φ' will consist of circles, passing only through one point O - the centre of inversion.

The orem 5. If a certain figure in the plane is given, consisting only of straight lines and segments, then all construction problems which can be solved by Steiner's method, taking this figure as an auxiliary one, can always be solved by means of compasses alone in such a way that

all circles except one (the circle of inversion) pass through one and the same point, taken at random in the plane of the drawing.

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